

AMERICAN PENNY MAGAZINE, AND FAMILY NEWSPAPER.

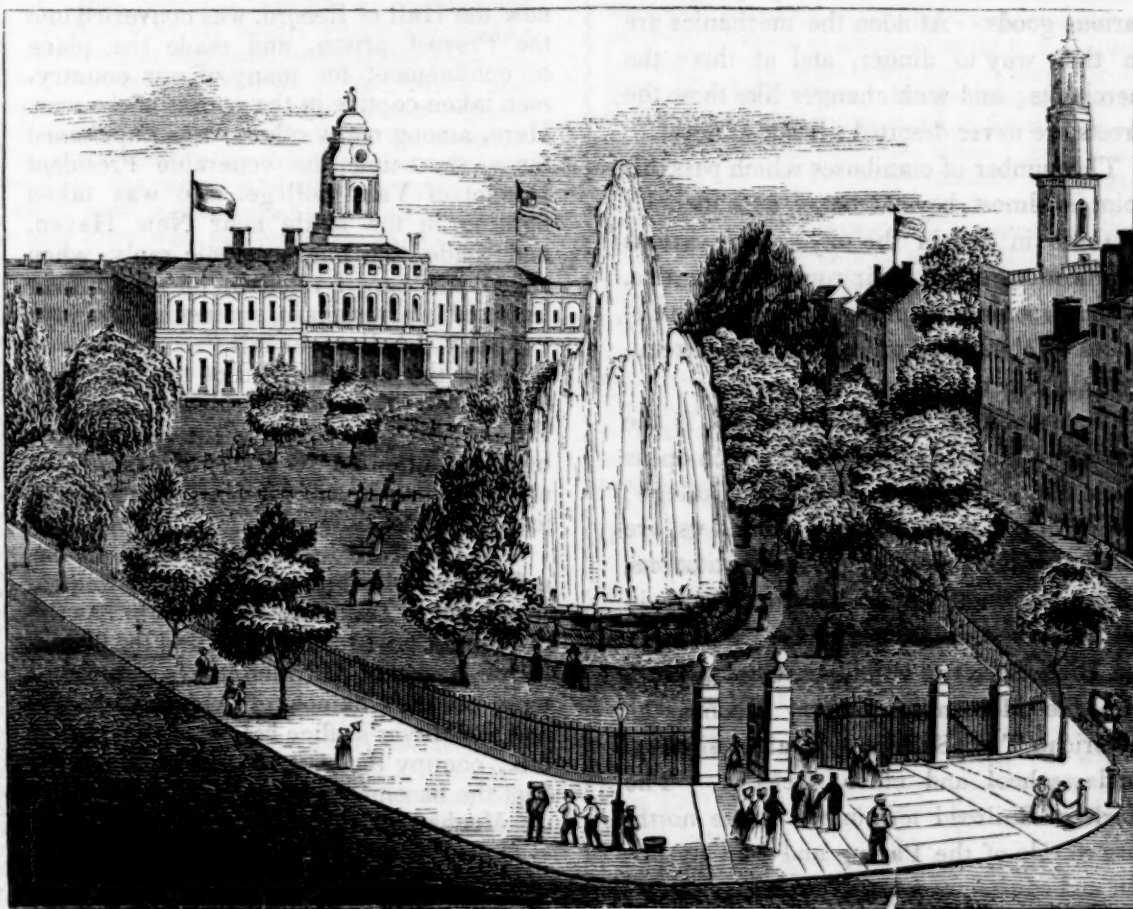
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Express Office, 112 Broadway. }

{ PRICE 3 CENTS, SINGLE, OR
{ \$1 a Year, in Advance, by mail.

VOL. I.

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, APRIL 26, 1845.

No. 12.



THE PARK—NEW YORK.

THE PARK is the oldest and most important of the public squares in the city of New York, though not the largest. It is here presented as it appears from one of the upper windows of the Astor House, nearly opposite its southern extremity. On the left is seen the eastern side of Broadway, from which the other principal avenue of the city here springs, and passes off to the right. It is at first known by the name of Park Row, for half a mile further it is called Chatham Row and Chatham Street,

and, beyond Chatham Square, the Bowery. Chatham theatre is cut off from view by the limit of the picture on the right; the steeple belongs to the old Brick Church, and the flag flying beyond it is intended to mark Tammany Hall, so long celebrated in political affairs.

At this corner daily meet the thousands of passengers and vehicles which continually throng these two great channels of the city; and it is curious to a stranger to observe the variety of classes pouring by at

different hours of the day and night. Clerks, mechanics and laborers, early in the morning, hasten down to begin their various kinds of business; then the merchants pass in throngs, mingled with children on their way to school. During the forenoon, people of leisure, including many ladies, and most of the strangers visiting the city for pleasure, move leisurely along Broadway, and give occupation to the numerous shop-keepers, who vie with each other in displaying their various goods. At noon the mechanics are on their way to dinner, and at three the merchants; and with changes like these the streets are never deserted till late at night.

The number of omnibuses which pass this point is almost beyond belief, as it includes all those in use in the city. The various ramifications of all their routes concentrate, although some of them regularly perform distances of about four miles from one extremity to the other.

Near the Astor House on the left, is the American Hotel, a little beyond which opens Park Place, leading to Columbia College; and within a short distance around us, are numerous interesting objects and institutions, not depicted in the print. Near at hand, in the next street on the right, are the American Bible Society's buildings, Clinton Hall, with the Mercantile Library Rooms, the American Tract Society, several missionary, Sunday-school and other Societies. The Harlem Railroad terminates at the north-eastern side of the Park; and the City prison and courts are a little beyond.

The beautiful Park Fountain, which first arrests the eye as it falls upon the print, is one of the noble evidences of the advantages afforded to the city by the celebrated Croton Aqueduct, one of the finest works of the kind in the world. The water which is here thrown into the air sometimes to the height of seventy feet, is brought to the city through a large subterranean conduit of masonry work, forty-five miles, and distributed to the streets and houses by iron and leaden pipes. The height of the reservoirs is such as to force it upwards by hydrostatic pressure.

In the summer of 1776, when the British fleet and army at Staten Island were daily threatening an approach towards the city, and our troops, from different parts of the country, were pouring in for its defence, a review was held here, and the line extended along the street on the right of the Park, before they marched for Long Island, where the unfortunate battle of Brooklyn soon after took place. After the occupation of New York by the enemy, the building next east of the City Hall, concealed from this point of view by the fountain, and now the Hall of Record, was converted into the Provost prison, and made the place of confinement for many of our countrymen taken captive in the course of the war. Here, among many others, was imprisoned for a short time, the venerable President Dagget of Yale College, who was taken fighting in the battle near New Haven, and made that characteristic reply when asked whether, if released, he would ever be found in arms again, against his majesty: "Really, I believe I shall."

Near the opposite end of the City Hall is the site of the old Bridewell, or City Prison, now gone; and in the rear a large building called the New City Hall, in which are the Alms-House, the Hall of the American Institute, &c.

The City Hall itself, which faces us, has a fine front of white marble, with a rear of free stone. The wing on our right has the Supreme Court room below, and the Chamber of Assistant Aldermen above; the other wing has the Chamber of Aldermen above, and the Mayor's office below. Court rooms, &c., occupy the rest of the building, except the basement, where are the rooms of the Mechanics' Institute.

EXTRACTS

From the 2d vol. of the U. S. Exploring Expedition.

Arrival at Tahiti.—We find our explorers, at the opening of the second volume, in sight of Tahiti, and are soon called upon to witness their arrival and reception. Nor is there any delay in commencing operations. An observatory, furnished with both astronomic and magnetic instruments, is at once established, and parties are sent out for the survey of the principal harbors and the intervening channels. A large body of officers and naturalists were also sent across the islands to visit Orohena, one of the highest peaks, and Lake Waiherea. They could not, however, reach the desired spot, but some days afterwards Captain Hudson, with his officers, succeeded in measuring the elevation of Aorai, the peak which is next in height to Orohena. This he found to be 6979 feet; Orohena appeared to

be about 1500 feet higher. From these two peaks ridges descend to all parts of the coast; they are precipitous and narrow, their summit being often a mere edge, where walking is not only dangerous, but sometimes impossible.—*London Athenæum*.

Ascent of Mount Orohena.—Another attempt was made to reach the top of Orohena, by Dr. Pickering and Mr. Couthouy. By nine o'clock in the morning they had, after a walk of about six miles, attained a higher point than any on their former journey—about 3500 feet:—

"When they had reached the altitude of 1500 feet, they no longer found any paths; on arriving at this point, they halted for some time to make collections of land-shells, and some very interesting specimens were obtained of *Helices*, *Patulas*, *Cyclostomas*, *Curocolas*, and *Pupas*; after this they continued ascending, the ridge gradually becoming narrower, until they reached a spot on the ridge where there was not room for one person to pass by another, and where they could look down a precipice on each side to depths of two thousand feet. Plants that were below of small size, here grew into large woody shrubs: among them a species of *Epacris* was found growing luxuriantly along the crest of the ridges, and magnificent arborescent ferns on the mountain sides, some of them forty feet in height; another species was seen whose fronds were more than twenty feet in length. Their path was much impeded by tangled ferns and wiry grass (*Gleichenia*), which it was impossible to get through without the aid of a knife or a hatchet. They had now reached 4500 feet, the highest point yet attained, according to the guide, by white men; two o'clock had arrived, and as there was no place where they could encamp, so any chance of reaching a point suitable for passing the night in, by the advice of Vahaore [their guide] they allowed him to look for one. The mountain top was still estimated to be six miles distant; they had little doubt that it could be ascended by following the ridge, and it was thought that they could accomplish the task if time permitted. The day was fine, and they enjoyed a view of the whole mountain, which appeared as if it were the centre, from which the different ridges of the island radiate in ten or twelve directions towards the coast, having deep and narrow valleys between them, through which the mountain torrents rush; these valleys spread out as they approach the coast, and the ridges become more rounded and accessible. After reconnoitering the ground for some time, Vahaore recollected a place where they might pass the night, which he thought was not far distant. He therefore immediately began to break a road, which he continued for about a quarter of a mile along the ridge. He then reached a place where the descent might be made, which, however, to all appearances, presented as few facilities for the purpose as any they had before looked at. They, how-

ever, tried it, and after a hard scramble reached, about sunset, the place he sought. The descent was estimated to be about two thousand feet, and was performed partly by leaping from tree to tree, and partly by lowering one another by ropes over precipitous ledges from ten to twelve feet in height. In the words of Sacket, 'No man in his senses ever went down such a place before, and none but a fool would attempt to do so again.'

The Antarctic Continent.—"Feb. 13.—At 2 o'clock A. M. we made sail to the southwest, in order to close with the barrier, which we found retreated in that direction, and gave us every prospect of getting nearer to it. Our course, for the most part, was through icebergs of tabular form. In the afternoon we had the land ahead, and stood in for it with a light breeze until 6½ P. M. when I judged it to be ten or twelve miles distant. It was very distinct, and extended from west-southwest to south-southeast. We were now in longitude 106° 40' E. and latitude 65° 57' S.; the variation was 55° 30' westerly. The water was very green. We sounded in three hundred fathoms, and found no bottom. The weather having an unsettled appearance, we stood off to seek a clearer space for the night. The land left was high, rounded, and covered with snow, resembling that first discovered, and had the appearance of being bound by perpendicular icy cliffs.

"14. At daylight we again made sail for the land, beating in for it until 11 A. M. when we found any further progress quite impossible. I then judged that it was seven or eight miles distant. The day was remarkably clear, and the land very distinct. By measurement we made the extent of the coast of the Antarctic Continent, which was then in sight, seventy-five miles, and by approximate measurement, three thousand feet high. It was entirely covered with snow. Longitude at noon 106° 18' 42" E., latitude 65° 59' 40" S., variation 57° 05' westerly. On running in, we had passed several icebergs greatly discolored with earth, and finding we could not approach the shore any nearer, I determined to land on the largest ice-island that seemed accessible, to make dip, intensity, and variation observations. On coming up with it, about one and a half miles from where the barrier had stopped us. I hove the ship to, lowered the boat, and fortunately effected a landing. We found embedded in it, in places, boulders, stones, gravel, sand, and mud or clay. The larger specimens were of red sandstone and basalt. No signs of stratification were to be seen in it, but it was in places formed of icy conglomerate, (if I may use the expression,) composed of large pieces of rocks, as it were frozen together, and the ice was extremely hard and flint-like. The largest boulder embedded in it was about five or six feet in diameter, but being situated under the shelf of the iceberg, we were not able to get at it. Many specimens were obtained, and it was amusing to see the eagerness and desire

of all hands to possess themselves of a piece of the Antarctic Continent. These pieces were in great demand during the remainder of the cruise. In the centre of this iceberg was found a pond of most delicious water, over which was a scum of ice about ten inches thick. We obtained from it about five hundred gallons. We remained upon this iceberg several hours, and the men amused themselves to their hearts' content in sliding. The pond was three feet deep, extending over an area of an acre, and contained sufficient water for half a dozen ships. The temperature of the water was 31° . This island had been undoubtedly turned partly over, and had precisely the same appearance that the icy barrier would have exhibited if it had been turned bottom up, and subsequently much worn by storms. There was no doubt that it had been detached from the land, which was about eight miles distant. The view of the land, ice, &c. taken from the ice-island, is exhibited in the plate, and gives a correct representation of these desolate regions.

"Who was there prior to 1840, either in this country or in Europe, that had the least idea that any large body of land existed to the south of New Holland? and who is there that now doubts the fact, whether he admits it to be a vast continent, or contends that it is only a collection of islands?"

"The icebergs found along the coast afloat were from a quarter of a mile to five miles in length; their separation from the land may be effected by severe frost rending them asunder, after which the violent and frequent storms may be considered a sufficient cause to overcome the attraction which holds them to the parent mass. In their next stage they exhibit the process of decay, being found fifty or sixty miles from the land, and for the most part with their surfaces inclined at a considerable angle to the horizon. This is caused by a change in the position of the centre of gravity, arising from the abrading action of the waves.

"The evidence that an extensive continent lies within the icy barriers, must have appeared in the account of my proceedings, but will be, I think, more forcibly exhibited by a comparison with the aspect of other lands in the same southern parallel. Palmer's Land, for instance, which is in like manner invested with ice, is so at certain seasons of the year only, while at others it is quite clear, because strong currents prevail there, which sweep the ice off to the northeast. Along the Antarctic Continent for the whole distance explored, which is upwards of fifteen hundred miles, no open strait is found. The coast, where the ice permitted approach, was found enveloped with a perpendicular barrier, in some cases unbroken for fifty miles.

"If there was only a chain of islands, the outline of the ice would undoubtedly be of another form; and it is scarcely to be conceived that a long chain could extend so nearly in the same parallel of latitude. The land

has none of the abruptness of termination that the islands of high southern latitudes exhibit; and I am satisfied that it exists in one uninterrupted line of coast, from Ringgold's Knoll, in the east, to Enderby's Land, in the west; that the coast (at longitude 95° E.) tends to the north, and this will account for the icy barrier existing, with little alteration, where it was seen by Cook in 1773. The vast number of ice-islands conclusively points out that there is some extensive nucleus which retains them in their position; for I can see no reason why the ice should not be disengaged from islands, if they were such, as happens in all other cases in like latitudes. The formation of the coast is different from what would probably be found near islands, soundings being obtained in comparatively shoal water; and the color of the water also indicates that it is not like other southern lands, abrupt and precipitous. This cause is sufficient to retain the huge masses of ice, by their being attached by their lower surfaces instead of their sides only."

COVERING A BOOK.

From the Treasury of Knowledge.

The "cover" of a book, in bookbinders' phraseology, is the piece of leather or of cloth which envelopes the millboard; but the reader of a book when he speaks of its cover, gives the term a much more extensive application. We must therefore at once explain that the leather or cloth is called the *cover*, the stiffening substance within is the *board*, and both taken collectively the *case*.

When the book is taken from the sewing-press, (a print and description of which are given in the last Penny Magazine, p. 167,) an inch or two of each string is left hanging to it; these are afterward either scraped so thin as to be but little conspicuous, or are employed for fastening a book to its case. The back of the book—that is, the assembled back-edges of all the sheets—is glued, to increase the bond by which they are held together. When the book has gone through one or two other minor processes, that one succeeds which is perhaps as remarkable as anything displayed in bookbinding; viz. rounding the back and hollowing the front. Most persons can understand the production of a square back and edge to a book; but the graceful convexity of the one and concavity on the other, in most books bound in the modern style, are as curious in the mode of production as they are pleasing in appearance. In the process of "backing," by which this effect is produced, the book is laid on a bench, held or pressed by the left hand of the workman, as shown in the cut, and hammered near the back edge, with such a peculiar movement of the left hand as

causes the back to become rounded while the hammering proceeds. The effect is so instantaneous that a looker-on scarcely knows how or when it is produced.



Rounding the back of a book.

In former times the edges were cut in a most clumsy and rude manner by means of shears, one blade being fixed to a bench, and the other being moved by the right hand of the workman while his left hand held the book, and thus the leaves were cut few at a time. The cutting press of the present day, is however a much more effective arrangement. The book, after being properly adjusted between two boards, is screwed in a press, with one of the ends projecting a little above the level of the bench. The ends of all the leaves are then cut off while in this position, by means of an instrument called a "plough," the cutting edge of which, in its mode of action, is midway between that of a pointed knife and a plane-iron. The edges are all cut to a perfect level; and the book being reversed, the other end is similarly treated. But by far the most remarkable part of the process is that by which the concave front edge is brought to such a regular curve. The glue with which the back of the book had previously been coated, is so far softened as to suffer the bands and the back edges of the sheets to yield to pressure. The workman takes the book in his hand, front edge uppermost, and strikes the back forcibly against the bench; transforming the round back into a square back. Then, inserting two pieces of sheet iron four inches by one, called trindles, between the book and

the boards at each end to keep the sheets in this position, he fixes the book in the cutting-press, and cuts the front edge in precisely the same way as the top and bottom; thus making all the edges perfectly square, and all the leaves perfectly equal in size. The most remarkable part of the operation then succeeds; for immediately on removing the trindles from the book, the whole of the leaves spring back to their former position, that is, convex at the back edge. Hence is produced the hollow or "gutter" of the front edge.

Millboard, the stiff substance of which the sides of books are formed, is a thick paste-board composed of many parallel layers, glued or pasted together, and pressed in a mill to make them dense and smooth. In the first place, a pattern-piece, or size-pattern, is prepared, having the exact size and form of the boards to be cut. The cutting-machine is then adjusted to these dimensions, by causing an edged instrument, analogous to a scissor-blade, to work at a certain distance from a groove or raised ledge, against which the edge of the board is placed. The actual cutting is effected as by a pair of shears.

When a book attached to its boards by means of the bands, is ready to receive the leather covering, the leather is cut to the required size, allowing about half an inch all round for paring and turning in. The edge is pared or cut away obliquely with a keen knife, to prevent the unseemly projection which would otherwise result. The leather is laid smooth with the face downward, and the back surface well coated with paste. The workman then takes the book in his hands, laying the back evenly in the middle of the leather, and draws and smooths and works the latter until it adheres closely to the back and boards of the book.

FOREIGN TRAVELS.

Greece in 1844; or, A Greek's Return to his Native Land—a narrative, edited by THEODORE DWIGHT, JR.

CHAPTER III.

Road to Athens.—Arrival.—Meeting with friends.—Changes in Greece.—The Statesman Collettis.—King Otho.—The Queen.

A short distance from the road, on the level land which now lay before us—the plain of Attica—was a small and humble monument of stone. No one who has read the modern history of Greece could look upon it without emotion, when informed that it marked the grave of Karaiskakis. He was one of the bravest and most serviceable officers who fought in the late war, and was remarkable

for the purity of his patriotism as well as for activity and conduct.

While the fortress of Missolongi was closely besieged by the Turks in 1825, Karaïskakis, with the aid of some of the troops from Navarino, effectually cut off their communication with Eastern Greece. When, in 1827, the approach of Kiutahi Pacha from the north, threatened Greece with a renewal of the sufferings from which she had just been in a great measure delivered, he was the principal opponent of the barbarians, and stood the keeper of the gates of Greece, with a boldness and resolution worthy of the best days of the nation. It was in the month of May, of that year, that he received his mortal wound, in attacking a Turkish position. His dying words are no less remarkable for Laconic brevity than the devoted patriotism which they expressed: "What I have done, I have done: now for the future!"

My coachman drove me to a French Hotel, to which he belonged; and, having alighted, I waited only long enough to inquire the way to the American Missionary's house, when I set out in quest of my family. I was soon in the presence of Mr. Hill, who easily recognized me, and welcomed me with great kindness. He informed me that he was not acquainted with my father's residence, as he had never met with any of my friends; but that we probably might soon find it out. He therefore set off with me, and began to make inquiry of persons we met in the streets, if they knew of any Samians residing in Athens. After this question had been repeated several times, we received an affirmative answer from a person whom we had addressed; and some conversation ensued which drew the attention of several others. A boy, who had understood the general object of our inquiry, suddenly started away, and running some distance, stopped at a house where he knew a family of Samians lived, and informed them that a stranger was seeking for some of their islanders. On hearing it, two young men instantly followed him to the spot where we were still standing; and, addressing Mr. Hill, inquired whether I was a Samian. I looked, and saw them eyeing me very closely, when one of them inquired whether I had come from America, and then if I were not their brother. Their countenances at once seemed to lose the expression of strangers. I saw the likeness of my family; and, seizing their hands, which they offered me, we interchanged such expressions of joy and satisfaction as are natural to affectionate brothers after a separation of fourteen years.

They assured me that, although they had not expected me for some time to come, they had felt a hope rise in their minds as soon as they heard that a stranger was inquiring for Samians. I learned that the family were all well, and at home, except my father, who was at Samos, and a brother and a sister, who resided in the east of Eubœa. I was soon at home, and in the presence of my mother.

But how should I describe the reception I received? My brothers had shown all the affection that could have been expressed by them, and all that could have been desired; but it was easy to see that the feelings of a mother's heart are of a different class. She was unable, not only to give utterance to her joy, but even to bear it. She seized me, smiled, wept, embraced, sighed, spoke a word or two, sobbed, and seemed entirely overcome. Her exclamations went to my heart—the language so familiar in my childhood, and for so many years unheard—the same words and the same voice which first taught me to speak it: altogether, the feelings I had were such as to affect me deeply. My mother was for a time quite unable to recover her composure; but I soon felt all the pleasure of being once more at home, and in the midst of my much loved relatives, after many years spent in a foreign and a very distant land.

The kind remarks and inquiries which ensued, the information I asked on an hundred different subjects, and the relations which were expected of me, in my turn, of what I had seen and done, I must pass over—although naturally to me some of the most interesting recollections I have now to recal, of my visit to my friends and country. To a foreigner it would have seemed as strange, as to me it appeared natural, to find myself among a family where the words in familiar use were as old as the times of the Trojan war, and where many of the household terms are the same which are still found in the classics back to Homer. I sat on a chair, one of whose names is still *cáthedra*, as in the *Iliad*; and the words of welcome and inquiry which had greeted me on my entrance, were chiefly such as are still found in ancient authors.

How had things changed in Greece since all past periods of her history! I saw memorials around me of all ages. Wherever the traveller turns his eye, he sees a splendid temple two thousand years old, which has been commemorated by writers, in classical strains, for the perfection of its style, or the importance of events which it has witnessed; the ruins of others, more ancient, more grand, or relating to more eventful scenes; or, at least, mountains, hills, vales and streams renowned in history and poetry. But among them all, there are perhaps none so apt to call up feelings of present sorrow or lively pleasure, as those objects which are connected with the late revolution. Any American may go to Greece, and with only the story of the humane interposition of his countrymen in his recollection, to save the people from starvation, find much to excite these mingled feelings at many a point of his journey. Let him take the simple, unvarnished journal of Col. Miller, and recur to the scenes which he describes, and he will be reminded that the Americans and Greeks have grounds for a lasting intercourse and attachment.

For myself, being a Greek, and at the same

time half an American, I felt deeply on this subject; and I expect to retain those impressions and to foster them through the rest of my life. Athens was now in a state of tranquillity and happiness. Nothing occurred while I was there to interrupt public peace, or to raise a disquieting apprehension. How different was the state of the city in 1828, when the American ships were arriving in the ports of Greece, laden with supplies of food and clothing for the starving and naked inhabitants, thousands of whom were flocking from the mountains, and crowding on the shores to receive their portions and live!

Athens had long been in the possession of the Turks, then besieging a band of Greeks who held the Acropolis. At length the patriots were forced to yield, and were permitted to retire; but many a brave man had lost his life, and many a widow and orphan were wandering about the Morea and islands in a state of starvation.

Among the incidents which I related to my friends, was that of my acquaintance with the friends of Collettis in Paris, and the message which he had requested me to deliver to our distinguished statesman, on my arrival at Athens. My brothers proposed that I should visit him, and mentioned that a peculiarly interesting occasion would soon present itself—the festival of St. John—when he always keeps open house all day, to receive any visitors who may choose to call. This is an old custom, by the way, common to Greeks—at least those of wealth. The Greek church observes the reputed days of many saints, and those persons who bear their names hold levées, or in other ways celebrate them, at their own houses. Collettis' name being John, his levée was of course held on the day of St. John; and, when it came, I accompanied several of my friends to his dwelling, to pay my respects.

John Collettis is a native Greek of the most devoted character, and enjoys the confidence of most of the nation. He received a liberal education, and was among the early patriots, who, at the approach of the Greek war, devoted themselves, with a solemn oath, to the liberty of their country. He has been actively employed, since the war, in different important stations; and now resides in Athens, of which he is one of the representatives in Congress. He is a single man, never having been married, but lives in handsome style, like a man of affluence. We were ushered into a large room, where sweetmeats and refreshments were offered to crowds of visitors who were entering and passing out, after exchanging a few words with the distinguished statesman. Collettis received his visitors standing, with becoming dignity and entirely at his ease. One of my friends presented me to him, and he immediately accosted me with a smile and a friendly welcome back to my country, alluding to my visit to Paris, and to our mutual young friend the student, of whom he inquired with interest.

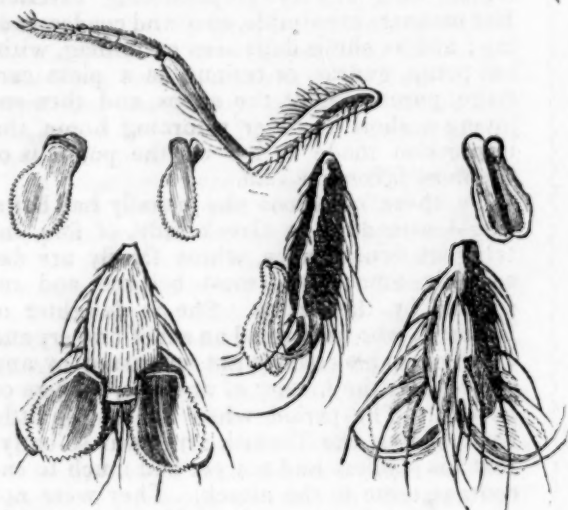
The King of Greece is a full-sized, good-looking man, about 26 years of age, with *manners*, deportment and character which make a favorable impression. The Greeks appeared to me to be very well content with him, as they doubtless consider it impossible to enjoy the privilege of being without a king, or of having one of their own nation. I heard no one speak unfavorably of his conduct or intentions, nor did I hear any fault found with anything which he had done or said. His popularity is increased by the high esteem which is everywhere felt for his amiable wife. The queen has a very kind and gentle disposition, with a very prepossessing exterior. Her manners are simple, easy and condescending; and as she is daily seen out, riding, without pomp, guards, or retinue, in a plain carriage, purchasing at the shops, and then enjoying a short drive or returning home, the impression made by her on the public is of the most favorable kind.

On these occasions she usually has but a single attendant—a Greek lady, of fine, intelligent countenance, whose family are deservedly among the most beloved and respected by the nation. She is daughter of Bozzaris, who performed an act of bravery and devotion to his country not surpassed by any recorded in the history of any age, modern or ancient. The period when he led his little band against the Turkish army was so early, that his soldiers had not yet had much to encourage them to the attack. They were not accustomed to war, and could not have felt like long-practiced soldiers. He also had had but little experience in commanding, and even in fighting. Besides this, the enemy were numerous and powerful, while his force was small, unsupported, and ill provided. The country was not with them in any other sense than to desire their success. The Greeks were disheartened and terrified at the approach of an army of barbarous Turks, which they considered wholly irresistible; and, with one consent, kept back from the scene of danger. The Turks, approaching from the north, pursued the same route which Xerxes took on his way into Greece. They had passed Thermopylæ, and encamped on the plain of Thebes, where he attacked them.

FLIES' FEET.

The insects are beginning to appear around us, as the warm season comes on. Who has not wondered at the facility with which a fly walks up a pane of glass? And how is it? The most easy and natural presumption for a conjecturer perhaps is, that it is done by the aid of a little glue sticking to his feet. Some naturalists have assured us that it is effected by a little suction apparatus, which provides for a vacuum every step the insect takes. The sci-

entific not long since inclined to think, (and of course the public, who take their opinions when they know them,) that the fly supported itself on smooth surfaces by means of the stiff little bristles which cover the bottoms of his feet, and are seen through the microscope. A polished glass itself, when examined with the magnifiers, exhibits many minute cavities in its surface. But how could the insect walk thus under a horizontal glass, with his feet upwards?



Flies' Feet.

The reader will see above the leg and feet of the house fly magnified in different degrees. The upper figure is the leg, the central and two lower ones the foot turned on different sides, to show how the parts are arranged. Each foot is furnished with sharp, hooked nails, and two small flat palms, like pads, which appear to come down to the level of what is trodden on. These have been supposed to have the power of suckers, and to hold fast to the surface of glass in any position, by forming a little vacuum beneath them. It is well known, that a stone of considerable size may be raised, by placing upon it a circular piece of wet leather, having a string fastened to its middle, if the air can be kept out, while the string is pulled upwards. Boys sometimes try this experiment with success. On a similar plan, it has been said, these palms on the fly's foot were made to give him a secure hold on the smoothest surfaces. But more careful at-

tention dispelled this mistake. The palms are found to be covered with short hairs, which prevent them from touching the ground; and these, in their turn, prove to be not the supporters of the insect, as they have been supposed by other writers to be, by entering into the minute interstices in the substances which he passes over.

Naturalists now seem generally to adopt an explanation which has been rejected in former years, viz. that a gummy substance found on the feet of the fly adheres to every thing he touches, with sufficient tenacity to support his weight. It is said that his footsteps may be traced on almost anything he passes over, with a magnifying glass, although they are often so faint as to be discernible only with difficulty.

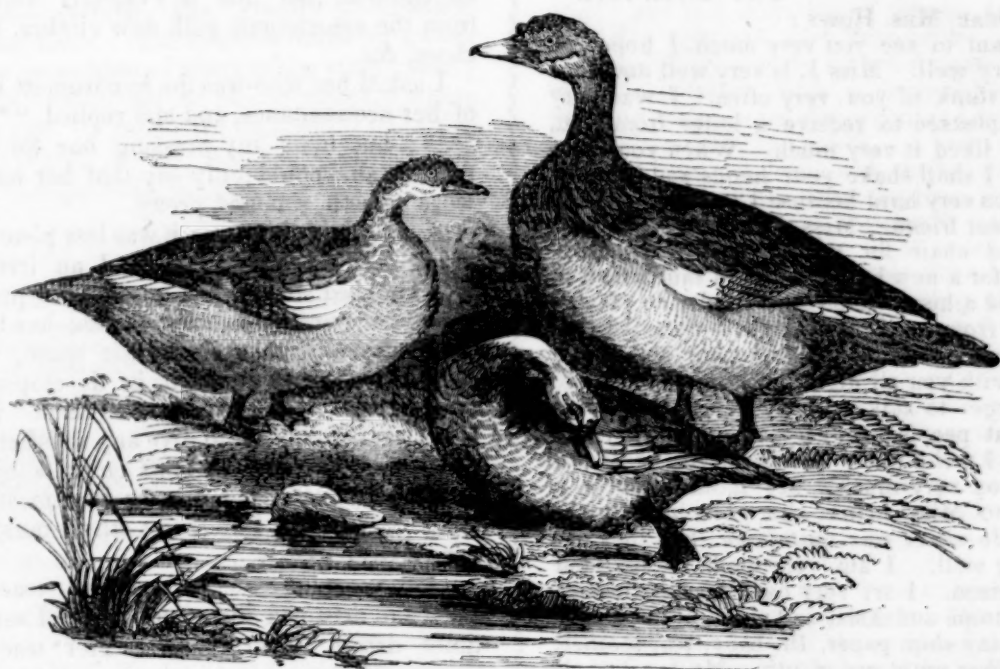
THE MUSCOVY DUCKS.

From the American Poulterer's Companion.

The French naturalists assert that the Muscovy duck is a distinct species, and not a variety. It is much larger than the common duck, and is distinguished by a caruncled membrane of a red color, which Brun compares to a cherry, covering the cheeks, and extending behind the eyes, and swells at the root of the bill; this tubercle is wanting in the female, as also the tuft of narrow feathers, and rather twisted, which hangs behind the head of the male, which stands erect when excited. She is also smaller; both stand low on the legs, have short claws and the inner ones crooked; are a clumsy bird on the ground, light on the wing, and will perch on fences, etc.

"In a wild state," says Brun, "the drake is of a brownish black color, with a broad white patch on the wings, the female being smaller and more obscurely colored." In the domestic state, it exhibits every variety of color, like a common duck. "At one time," says Brun, "the male is white, at another, the female; in other instances, both male and female are black, and again of great diversities of color; but they are commonly black, variegated with other colors." The black are glossed with green on the back, and changeable, as they are exposed to the rays of the sun.

The Muscovy duck, it appears, is only found in a wild state in South America. Marcgrave has observed it in the Brazils; it is also a native of Guiana. Travellers assert that these birds perch on the large



MUSCOVY DUCKS.

trees that border rivers and marshes, similar to terrestrial birds; they build their nests there, and as soon as the ducklings are hatched, the mother takes them one by one, and drops them into the water; laying takes place two or three times a-year, and each is from twelve to eighteen eggs, quite round, and of a greenish white; the moulting season begins in September, and is sometimes so complete, that the ducks, finding themselves almost entirely destitute of feathers, are unable to fly, and let themselves be taken alive by the Indians. These birds are as shy as our wild ducks, and it is by surprise alone they are to be shot.—*Main.*

Scaliger and Oliver de Serres have given out that this duck was dumb.

The Muscovy drakes are often very cross and quarrelsome with other poultry, and we have known them to attack small children, particularly when they happen to have any food in their hands, for which reason we have abandoned the rearing of them.

LAURA BRIDGEMAN,

The Deaf, Dumb and Blind Girl, in the Perkins Institution, Boston.

From Dr. Howe's late Report.

She has a good intellect; she has been seven years under instruction; her teachers have not been wanting in zeal and diligence, and she has been herself untiring in her efforts, and yet she is now on the verge of womanhood, without so much acquaintance with language as a common child of six

years old. This often excites the surprise of visitors who have known the history of her case for a long time, and have taken great interest in it.

I was in Europe during the first half of the year 1844; and the most serious cause of regret which I have for my absence, is the interruption which it caused in my supervision of her education. It may be that I should not have been able to prevent all unfavorable impressions upon her mind, even had I been always here; they were perhaps inevitable at her age, and with her increased capacity for conversation with others, but at any rate I should have tried.

Her teacher, Miss Mary Swift, has been faithful and industrious; and in the intellectual instruction she has shown great tact and ability. Had all others been as discreet and wise as she, we should not have to regret some impressions which the child has received, and which I shall presently mention.

Her bodily health has been very good during the whole year. She has increased in stature; and her figure which is more fully unfolded, is well proportioned in all its parts, and strong and graceful. She continues to improve in the knowledge and use of language, as will be shown by the following letters which were written solely by her; and by the extracts from her teacher's journal, in which were recorded at the moment, and with great exactitude the very words she used.

24th March, 1644.

MY DEAR MRS. HOWE:

I want to see you very much, I hope you are very well. Miss J. is very well and happy, I think of you very often. I was very much pleased to receive a letter from you, and I liked it very much. When you come home, I shall shake your hands and hug and kiss you very hard because I love you and am your dear friend. Miss J. is making a nice worsted chair for you to please you very much for a new house. I send much love to you and a kiss. Are you very glad to receive letters from me? One night I dreamed that I was very glad to see you again and that I slept with you all night. I hope that you do not forget to talk with your fingers. I am sad that people are very idle and dirty and poor. I write many letters to you because I love you very much. My mother wrote a letter to Miss J. that she was very sick and my little sister was quite sick, but they are getting well. I am very well. I am your dear friend. I try very hard about America and Europe and Asia, and many other things. I can say ship, paper, Dr. baby, tea, mother, and father with my mouth. My teacher always reads a story to me: she is kind to me: she sets me a good example.

My dear friend, good bye.

LAURA BRIDGEMAN.

Mention was made in a former Report of her disposition to use the lungs and vocal organs. She still shows this; and so does Oliver Caswell, though to a much smaller extent than Laura. The manner in which she uses these organs seems to show their natural office, and would settle the question, (if it be any longer a question) whether they were destined by nature to be the medium of intellectual communication among men, or whether they were selected from among other equally possible means for interchange of thought; as pantomime, arbitrary visible signs, &c.

Sometimes her acts and expressions furnish themes as interesting to the poet as to the philosopher. On new-year's day when I was in Europe, she met her teacher and said, "It is new happy year to-day." The teacher wished her a happy new year, when she turned to the east, and stretching out her hand, said—"I want Doctor a happy new year;" she then paused, and, turning to her teacher, said, "but Doctor cannot know I say so."

I have sometimes questioned her about her æsthetical perceptions, but have not obtained any very satisfactory answers. Her ideas of beauty in material things are principally connected with smoothness. A round ball is not more beautiful to her than a square box, provided they are equally smooth. Freshness or newness is indeed

an element, but this is evidently derived from the associations with new clothes, new shoes, &c.

I asked her who was the handsomest lady of her acquaintance, and she replied, "****"; but upon my pressing her for her reason, she could only say that her hands were smooth, soft, and pretty.

A cane with knots on it was less pleasing to her than a smooth one; and an irregularly knobbed stick, than one with the prominences at regular intervals. She has thus the rudiments of the æsthetic sense, but, like that of other children, its development must depend upon education and habit. She is not yet old enough to give any satisfactory account of her own feelings on the subject.

The subject of her dreams is a most interesting one, but like many others must be passed over hastily.

One morning she asked her teacher what she dreamed about, and said, "I sometimes dream about God." Her teacher asked, "What did you dream about last night?" She said, "I dreamed that I was in the entry,—the round entry, and Lurena was rolling about in her wheel-chair to exercise, and I went into a good place where God knew I could not fall off the edge of the floor." Soon after she said, "I dreamed that God took away my breath to Heaven," accompanying it with the sign of taking away something from her mouth.

On another occasion her teacher says, "In the hour for conversation she commenced the subject of dreaming again, and asked, "Why does God give us dreams? last night I dreamed I talked with my mouth; did you hear me talk?" No, I was asleep. "I talked with my mouth"—and then she made the noise which she generally does for talking. I asked her how she talked—"I talked as any people in dreams." To the question, what words did you dream? I could get no answer. She asked "do Spanish people dream like us?"

She sometimes is frightened in her dreams, and awakes in great terror, and says she dreamed there were animals in the room which would hurt her. She has still much fear of animals, and can hardly be induced to touch the quiet and harmless house-dog.

Improvement of Boatmen.—The missionaries employed by the Philadelphia Sabbath Association have, in connection with other means used effected a great moral change among the boatmen. "Crime, according to the testimony of judges of the

criminal courts, has greatly diminished among them. The Bible is found in a very large proportion of boats in the state; many of the boatmen attend public worship where they stop to spend the Sabbath; not a few have within the last two years united with the various evangelical churches."

Selected.

MOUNT ARAFAT.

From the Travels of Ali Bey, a learned European, who assumed the dress, manners and character of a Mussulman, travelled extensively, and published a book about thirty years ago.

Mount Arafat is the principal object of the pilgrimage of the Mussulman; and several doctors assert, that if the house of God ceased to exist, the pilgrimage to the former would be completely meritorious, and would produce the same degree of satisfaction. This is my opinion likewise. [Mohamedan idolatry!]

It is here that the grand spectacle of the pilgrimage of the Mussulmen must be seen—an innumerable crowd of men from all nations, and of all colors, coming from the extremities of the earth, through a thousand dangers, and encountering fatigues of every description, to adore together the same God, the God of nature. The native of Circassia presents his hand in a friendly manner to the Ethiopian, or the Negro of Guinea; the Indian and the Persian embrace the inhabitant of Barbary and Morocco—all looking upon each other as brothers, or individuals of the same family united by the bands of religion, and the greater part speaking or understanding more or less the same language—the language of Arabia. No, there is not any religion that presents to the senses a spectacle more simple, affecting, and majestic.

Arafat is a small mountain of granite rock, the same as those that surround it; it is about 150 feet high, and is situated at the foot of a higher mountain to the E. S. E. in a plain about three quarters of a league in diameter, surrounded by barren mountains. Near the mountain are fourteen large basins, which the Sultan Saaoud has put in repair. They furnish a great abundance of excellent water, very good to drink, and which serves also for the pilgrims to wash themselves with upon this solemn day.

It was upon Mount Arafat that the common father of all mankind (according to an absurd Mahomdan legend) met Eve, after a long separation; and it is on that account that it is called Arafat—that is to say, gratitude. It is believed that it was Adam himself who built this chapel! The ritual commands that, after having repeated the afternoon prayer, which we did in our tents, we should repair to the foot of the mountain, and wait there the setting of the sun. The Webhabités, who were encamped at great distances, with a view to obey this precept, began to approach, having at their head the Sultan Saaoud and Abounocta, their second

chief; and in a short time I saw an array of forty-five thousand men pass before me, almost all of whom were mounted upon camels and dromedaries, with a thousand camels carrying water, tents, fire-wood, and dry grass for the camels of the chiefs. A body of two hundred men on horseback carried colors of different kinds, fixed upon lances. This cavalry, I was informed, belonged to Abounocta. There were also eight or ten colors among the camels, but without any other customary appendage. All this body of men, entirely naked, marched in the same order that I have formerly remarked.

It was impossible for me exactly to distinguish the Sultan and the second chief, for they were naked as well as the rest. However, I believe that a venerable old man, with a long white beard, who was preceded by the royal standard, was Saaoud. This standard was green, and had, as a mark of distinction, the profession of his faith, "There is no other god but God," embroidered upon it, in large white characters. We waited upon the mountain for the period of the sun's setting. The instant it occurred, what a tremendous noise! Let us imagine an assemblage of eighty thousand men, two thousand women, and a thousand little children, sixty or seventy thousand camels, asses, and horses, which at the commencement of night began to move in a quick pace along a narrow valley, according to the ritual, marching one after the other in a cloud of sand, and delayed by a forest of lances, guns, swords, &c.; in short, forcing their passage as they could. Pressed and hurried on by those behind, we only took an hour and a half to return to Mosdelifa, notwithstanding it had taken us more than two hours to arrive in the morning. The motive of this precipitation, ordered by the ritual, is, that the prayer of the setting sun, or Mozaref, ought not to be said at Arafat, but at Mosdelifa, at the same time as the night prayer, or Ascha, which ought to be said at the last moment of twilight—that is, an hour and a half after sunset. These prayers are repeated by each family privately. We hastened to say them upon our arrival, before we pitched our tents, and the day was terminated by mutual felicitations upon the happiness of our sanctification by the pilgrimage to the mount.

We set out the first day of Easter, to go to encamp at Mina. We alighted immediately after our arrival, and went precipitately to the house of the devil, which is facing the fountain. We had each seven small stones, of the size of gray peas, which we had picked up expressly the evening before, at Mosdelifa, to throw against the house of the devil. As the devil has had the malice to build his house in a very narrow place, not above thirty-four feet broad, occupied also in part by rocks, which it was requisite to climb to make sure of our aim when we threw the stones over the wall that surrounded it, and as the pilgrims all desired to perform this ceremony

immediately upon their arrival, there was a most terrible confusion. However, I soon succeeded in accomplishing this holy duty, through the aid of my people; but I came off with two wounds in my left leg. I retired afterwards to my tent, to repose myself after these fatigues. The Wehhabites came and threw their little stones also because the Prophet used to do so.

The Changing World.

"The fashion of this world passeth away."

'Tis written on the rolling SEA,
That holds no settled form;
Its shadowy clouds, its azure dye,
Its rainbow and its storm.

'Tis written on the restless YEAR—
On spring arrayed in flowers—
On summer bright, on autumn sear—
On winter's stormy hours.

'Tis written on the changing EARTH—
Its vallies clothed with pride,
Its towering hills of ancient birth,
Its fields and forests wide.

'Tis written on the surging SEA,
Whose waters will not sleep,
And on the countless streams that flee
All restless to its deep.

'Tis written on TIME's moving show,
That never is the same—
The living dreams that come and go,
Remembered but in name.

'Tis written in THY dying form,
Sweet mistress of this page:
The heart that plays within thee warm
Steals as it gives thine age.

Selected.

JUVENILE DEPARTMENT.

EDWARD AND HIS TEACHER.

Going to the Apothecary's.—One day, as Edward was at play with one of his friends, whom we may call James, he saw his father coming out of the door, and asked where he was going. "Only to the apothecary's," said he, "to get a little medicine for your little sister."

"May I go with you?" asked Edward.

"Yes, I have no objection," replied his father.

"May James go too, sir?"

"Certainly he may."

So they went together; and, while the man was preparing the medicine, the boys stood looking at some of his jars and bottles.

"What do those words mean?" asked one of them.

"Look," said their older friend, "and try to remember some of them."

On their way home he told them that most of the words are shortened, by leaving off some of the letters. This is what is called abbreviating. "Now you must know," said he, "that medicines are very numerous, and made from a variety of things. Some are made from stones or minerals, some from plants, and some, though only a few, from animal substances. Then of those from the plants, some are from the root, some from the trunk or wood, some from the bark, leaves, flowers, fruit or seeds. Now the names given to them in old times were taken from the language of the Romans, called Latin, or from that of the Greeks.

"I will explain a few of the apothecaries' marks to you. *Radix* means root; so when you see *Rad.* on a bottle you may know it contains some kind of root. *Rad. Rhea.*—What do you think that means?"

The boys thought a minute, but could not tell, except that it must be some kind of root.

"*Rhea*," said he, "is rhubarb. Now *Cortex* means bark. What do you think is the meaning of "*Cort. Cin.*"

"I guess I know," answered one of them: "Cinnamon."

"But cinnamon is not bark, is it?" asked the other.

"Certainly, it is; and there are some other kinds of bark used in medicine. Wherever you see *Cort.* you may know there is bark of some kind."

After this he told the boys of other words: *Folium* means leaf, *Semen* means seed, *Pulvis*, dust or flour, *Flavus*, yellow, &c. These, when abbreviated, are written *Fol. Sem. Pulv. Flav.*

The boys were much pleased when they understood all this; and the next day they wrote down some of the words, and tried to puzzle each other with them. Afterwards they showed some of them to their friends at home. They spoke again on the subject to Edward's father; and he took the op-

portunity to ask them a few questions, to see whether they understood and remembered what he had told them. He then informed them that this was only the beginning of a great deal of knowledge, which was to be had about medicines, and which they might obtain by studying well; and it would be very useful to them.

"It is unsafe," said he, to taste anything which you do not know the nature of. Chemistry teaches many things; and one is, not to judge of things only by their appearances. That medicine which you heard named the other day, is so poisonous that a teaspoonful would kill you in a short time."

"Kill us!" exclaimed the boys with surprise.

"Certainly, boys; and you must believe that before you know it in any other way, or you will be in danger of killing yourselves by eating it. Many a person has been killed by taking a little of some kind of white powder, instead of something else which looked like it. I have sometimes heard of arsenic, which had been got to poison rats with, laid by carelessly, and finally mixed with food, being mistaken for flour or salt, or something else, so that whole families were injured or killed by it.

"Now you can easily see why young people should be diffident of their own knowledge, and be willing to think that older persons may know more than themselves. The truth is, that truly learned men have taken more pains to get their learning, than ignorant people commonly have any idea of. They have given a vast deal of time to it, read many books, conversed with many other persons, and, what is sometimes the most laborious and difficult part of all, have thought it all over and over again, till they could remember it well. They have tried experiments, and had long practice in their business, and thus they have got opinions worth something to other people.

"Only think how different is the case with men who have spent their time in idleness, or have never taken the necessary pains to learn thoroughly anything important. They are never certain of anything: or, if they think they know, and boast of their knowledge, they soon show their ignorance, and are not trusted."

The boys afterwards invited Edward's father to go into the garret and see their apothecary's shop; for they had been busy on returning, in collecting vials and boxes,

and getting flour and brick dust, and other things, which they labelled as medicines. He went up and found all the things they had collected laid out in order upon a table, and in several drawers; and was then invited to step to the counter and examine the medicines, which he did with a smiling face, and many kind words to the industrious little boys.

MINERALS. No. 4.

Talc, and its Varieties.

Talc.—If you know French chalk, you may soon learn to distinguish this stone; for that is one sort of talc. It is usually whitish, but sometimes green or greenish. Sometimes it is pure white, shining and beautiful; sometimes it is transparent like mica, and splits almost as thin, but is not elastic. It is easily known from most other stones by feeling slippery, especially when the dust of it is rubbed between the fingers. It is much like soapstone, and has magnesia earth in it. All the magnesian stones are soft, slippery, and bear heat well.

This magnesian earth we use as medicine; it is white, and not slippery, with a slight taste and no smell. Several other stones and rocks are made of it, such as chlorite, serpentine and soapstone, which are of different colors and uses, but all soft, slippery, and able to bear fire. They are called, by some, the talc stones and rocks.

Chlorite is dark colored, soft and slippery, and looks as if made of shining sand. Sometimes it splits into broad and thin pieces, and is called chlorite slate.

Garnets and other crystals are sometimes found in chlorite.

Serpentine is a stone of different colors, commonly clouded, veined, striped, or spotted with light or dark green—but sometimes red, brown, &c. It was called serpentine because it often looks something like a snake-skin.

When hard, it may be polished, and is used instead of marble, for furniture and ornaments. But it is difficult to find large pieces without flaws, or cracks, or bad spots. Noble serpentine, which is the hardest and finest sort, is sometimes very beautiful indeed.

CHINESE DANDY.—His dress is composed of crapes and silks of great price, his feet are covered with high-heeled boots of the most beautiful Nankin satin, and his legs are encased in gaiters, richly embroidered and reaching to the knee. Add to this an acorn-shaped cap, of the latest taste; an elegant pipe, richly ornamented, in which burns the purest tobacco of the Fo Kien; an English watch; a toothpick, suspended to a button by

a string of pearls; a Nankin fan, exhaling the perfume of the tcholané [a Chinese flower]; and you will have an exact idea of fashionable Chinese. The Chinese dandy, like all other dandies, is seriously occupied with trifles. He belongs either to the Quail or the Cricket Club. Like the ancient Romans, the Chinese trade in quails, quarrelsome birds, intrepid duelists, whose combats form the subject of senseless wagers. In imitation of the rich, the poorer Chinese place at the bottom of an earthen basin two field crickets. These insects they excite and provoke, until they grow angry, attack each other, and the narrow field of battle is soon strewn with their claws, antennæ and corslets. There is between the Chinese and the old Romans all the difference that there is between the combats of the crickets and the terrible combats of the gladiators.—*Foreign paper.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

We are again indebted to a friend for the following

Notice of the City and Commerce of Shanghai, in September, 1844.

From the Hong Kong Register of Dec. 7.

The vessels arriving from Singapore, Malacca, Penang, Java, Jolo, Sumatra, Borneo, &c. and which are entered at the custom house as coming from Fuh-kien or Canton, bring European goods of all kinds: opium, flints, pepper, sharks' fins, deers' horns, cochineal, hides, nails, nutmegs, liquid and dried indigo, bicho de mar, birds' nests, mother o'pearl, shells, tortoise shells, ivory, buffalos' humps, sugar, canes, betel nuts, sapan wood, ebony, iron, lead, gold thread, and all kinds of wood for spars, ornamental and fragrant, as well as materials for dying and medicine coming from the Red Sea, the Persian or Indian and the Isles of Polynesia.

The ships of the north—that is, those which return to Quantung, Shensing, and Leateng—carry away cotton, some tea, paper, silks, and cotton stuffs from Nanking and Suchau; European goods and flints, opium, and a great part of the sugar, pepper, bicho de mar, and birds' nests, &c. which the vessels passing under the name of Fuhkien and Canton bring to Shanghai. Some of them, however, return in ballast.

These last mentioned vessels return with cargoes of cotton, earthen ware and porcelain, (especially for Formosa,) salted pork, green tea, raw and manufactured silks, native cotton cloth, blankets, hemp, dried pulse of various kinds, fruits, and part of the goods brought by the vessels from the north.

There is, besides, an interchange of a vast number of articles connected with the coasting trade, such as baskets, shoes, charcoal and coal, wood, straw, pipes, tobacco, gypsum, varnish, umbrellas, mats, lanterns, sacks, sponges, fruits, vegetables, &c.

There come besides to Shanghai, by the Yangtszekiang and its branches, vessels from various ports amounting in all to 5400 annually. These never put out to sea, but convey into the interior the goods brought by vessels from the south and the north, as well as transport from the interior the goods to be despatched by these vessels. In addition to the vessels employed in the inland navigation and those which go to sea, amounting, as has been shown, to 7000, there are at Shanghai innumerable boats and barges employed in fishing and in conveying passengers and goods.

It may be inferred, from the foregoing description, that Shanghai is not only a point of great trade in imports and exports, but also an emporium where there is an exchange of national and foreign commodities between the southern and northern parts of the Empire.

It would be an object of great interest to form a complete statement of the imports and exports, but this required, among other matters, a knowledge of the language of Shanghai, and of the innumerable dialects which are spoken by the seamen and merchants who come thither. I found access, indirectly, to a kind of register or cash-book, in which was set down daily the quantities entered for duties received on goods imported. I found the result, that there are yearly imported into Shanghai 520,000 peculs of sugar, from 25,000 to 30,000 of sapan wood; an equal quantity of dye-stuffs; from 3000 to 4000 of canes; 1950 of bicho de mar; 1700 of sharks' fins; and 1500 of nests.

All the duties received at this custom house on Chinese vessels produce a little more than \$100,000, of which only 80,000 enter the Imperial territory. There is, however, considerable confusion in the money, weights, and measures of Shanghai.

A CHINESE PEA.—There was presented to the Agricultural and Horticultural Society of India, a small assortment of Chinese seeds, consisting of peas, maize, cypress, &c.—Presented by H. Torrens, Esq. on behalf of Capt. H. Bigge. In his communication, forwarding these seeds, Capt. Bigge makes the following remarks in regard to one description of Pea:—

“Of the esculents, the large white Pea is deserving of this notoriety: that it forms the staple of the trade of Shanghai, or nearly so, to the astonishing amount of 10 millions of dollars, or two and a half millions sterling. This I give on the authority of the Rev. Mr. Medhurst, of Shanghai, and Mr. Thom, H. M. Consul at Ningpo. The peas are ground in a mill and then pressed, in a somewhat complicated, though (as usual in China) a most efficient press, by means of wedges driven under the outer parts of the frame-work with malets. No description would suffice without drawing. The oil is used both for eating and

burning—more for the latter purpose, however—and the cake packed like large Gloucester cheeses, or small grindstones in circular shape. It is distributed throughout China in every direction, both as food for pigs and buffaloes, as also for manure.”—*Bengal Hurkaru.*

FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

French Extract.

Description of the Bread-Fruit, in French.

[For a picture and description in English, see the first and second numbers of the Penny Magazine, pages 8th and 20th.]

L'ARBRE A PAIN D'OTAÏTI.

C'est un arbre dont le tronc, de la grosseur d'un homme, atteint une hauteur de quarante à cinquante pieds. Son bois est mou, jaunâtre et léger; son écorce, luisante. Les rameaux se réunissent à la partie supérieure du tronc, en formant une tête presque ronde. Les feuilles sont grandes, alternes, pétiolées, ovales. Les fruits sont de la grosseur de la tête; leur pulpe est blanche, farineuse, jaunâtre et succulente à leur parfaite maturité,

Lorsqu'ils ont été cuits dans un four ou sur le feu, ils ont une saveur agréable, qui rappelle à la fois le pain de froment et la pomme de terre. Ils sont ainsi un aliment aussi sain que substantiel. Les habitants de Taïti et des îles voisines s'en nourrissent pendant huit mois de l'année, et pendant les quatre autres mois, c'est-à-dire de Septembre à Décembre, époque où l'arbre fleurit et mûrit ses fruits, ils mangent une sorte de pulpe cuite, tirée de ces mêmes fruits. On dit que le produit de trois arbres suffit pour nourrir un homme pendant une année.

Ce n'est pas le seul avantage qu'on retire de l'arbre à pain; son écorce intérieure est formée de fibres extrêmement tenaces, et l'on s'en sert pour tisser des étoffes dont les habitants se font des vêtements. L'arbre à pain est originaire de l'Inde et de la mer du Sud, où il croît en abondance. Les Européens l'ont transplanté dans d'autres parties du globe. On le cultive depuis longtemps à l'Isle-de-France, à Cayenne et dans la plupart des Antilles.—*Secondes Lectures Françaises.*

A Plan for taking the Yeas and Nays in Deliberative Bodies.—The plan for taking the yeas and nays in all deliberative bodies in the United States, for which C. Glen Peebles of Philadelphia has a patent, covers various forms. The plan he proposes to adopt at present is as follows: Two pulleys or keys are placed within the desk of each member; a board or slab is placed on the clerk's desk, on which is printed the name of each member of the house; slips or slides are placed in this slab, running parallel to and to correspond with each name. Communication is had by means of wires, or other material, between the keys in desk and slides in board. When a vote of "ayes" is called, the mem-

bers simultaneously touch their key marked "aye," which throws the slide out on the board, so that it projects beyond his name and the edge of the board; and in like manner for the nays. By that arrangement, the clerk can count the vote, announce the result, and place the aggregate vote on the board, all within a space of one minute.—*Selected.*

MARRIAGE VOW.—The matrimonial ceremony, like many others, has undergone some variation in the progress of time. Upwards of three centuries ago, the husband, on taking his wife (as now) by the right hand, addressed her: "I, N. undersygne the N., for my wedded wife, for better, for worse, for richer, for poorer, yn sekness and yn helthe, tyl dethe us departe, (now 'do part,' as we have erroneously rendered it—the ancient meaning of 'departe,' even in Wickliffe's time, being 'separate,') as holy church hath ordeyned; and thereto I plygth the my trowthe."

The wife replies in the same form, with an additional clause, "to be buxom to the tyl dethe us departe."—*Eng. paper.*

Receipts.

From "Every Lady's Book," a little volume just published by a Lady of New York.

Cream Tea-Cakes.—To a pound of flour put a pint of sour cream and a cup of butter; dissolve half a teaspoonful of saleratus in a little hot water, and put it to it; mix it lightly, flouring your hands well; make it out in small cakes, each about the size of an egg; lay them close in a buttered basin, and bake in a quick oven.

Velvet Cakes.—To one quart of flour put a pint of warm milk and a gill of yeast; stir it well; then set it in a warm place to rise for two hours; then work into it two large tablespoonfuls of melted butter, or beef-drippings; flour your hands well, and make it into small cakes; rub a bit of butter over a pan, and lay them in; dip your hand in milk, and pass it over the tops of them; and bake in a quick oven.

THE LIFE OF BROTHER SIMON, OF OLOT—Late a Spanish Monk—written by himself.—We are happy to learn that the interesting young Spaniard whom we have several times noticed, has prepared a narrative of his eventful life. It has been translated by a lady, and received some additions by the aid of a friend who has written further particulars from his lips, and will soon be published. Our readers may take our word for it—it is one of the most affecting little works we ever read, and the best calculated to awaken a deep interest for the victims of Romish superstition, false doctrine, and ignorance! It sheds much light on the practical tendency of Romish Seminaries, such as abound in America.—*Am. Prot.*

He who is master of the fittest moment to crush his enemy, and magnanimously neglects it, is born to be a conqueror.

POETRY.

Song of the Soil.

By J. H. R. Bayley.

I start the bulb of the beautiful flower,
And feed the bloom of the wild-wood bower;
I rear the blade of the tender herb,
And the trunk of the stalwart oak I curb;
I force the sap of the mountain pine,
And curl the tendrils of the vine;
I robe the forest and clothe the plain
With the ripest of fruit and the richest of grain.

The cheek of the peasant I flush with health,
And yield the sturdy yeoman wealth;
I give the spirit of commerce wings,
And prop the tottering thrones of kings:
The gorgeous palace and humble cot
Owe every atom to me they've got;
And the prince at his banquet, and hind at his
board,
Alike must depend on the fare I afford.

Man may boast of his creature might,
His talents in peace, and his prowess in fight,
And lord it over beast and bird
By the charm of his touch and the spell of
his word;

But I am the sole and mighty source
Whence flows the tide of his boasted force:
Whatever his right and whoever he be,
His pomp and dominion must come from me!

I am the giver of all that's good,
And have been since the world hath stood:
Where's there wealth on ocean, or beauty on
land,
But sprung from the warmth of my fostering
hand?

Or where the object, fair and free,
That claims a being, but's traced to me?
Cherish! then cherish, ye sons of toil,
The wonderful might of the fruitful roil!

For the American Penny Magazine.

To My Friends.

"As thy days, thy strength shall be."
DEUT., ch. xxxiii, v. 25.*

Ah, my soul! why sink, dismayed?
Think what the Lord has done for thee!
When faint, despairing, He has said,
That, as thy days, thy strength shall be,

Yes, I have felt, in sorrow's hour,
When deeply wounded in my heart,
And clouds of deep despair did lower,
Thy pity kind to strength impart.

My friends, with fortune's frowns oppressed,
No prospect of relief who see;
Still on His declaration rest—
That, as your days, your strength shall be.

Autumnal foliage gay, arrayed
With brilliant tints, soon changes sear:
Thus earthly expectations fade;
For there is naught that's lasting here.

Though want oppress, do not despair—
For patience may dispel the gloom.
Of labor man is doomed the heir;
Nor let him on his wealth presume.

Despair not; but on Him rely,
Who ne'er the righteous does forsake—
Whose love parental hovers nigh:
His promise He doth never break.

Have you not seen, when clouds of night,
Impervious, dark, the sky o'erspread,
A little star, with trembling light,
Break forth, when soon the darkness fled?

Though thickest gloom your prospects shroud,
And not a ray of hope doth gleam,
Yet, as the star bursts from the cloud,
With radiance mild it still may beam.

For He, who never hides his face
From those who bend in humble prayer,
Apportions still to them the grace,
The burthen of their days to bear.

Rely upon His promised aid,
Though not a twinkling ray you see;
Take comfort—He to thee has said,
That, as thy days, thy strength shall be.

M. A.

* Our correspondent, who has favored us with these lines, writes that they were written at a time when the author sympathized deeply with a family of friends, who were in very afflicting and trying circumstances; and afterwards a copy was sent to another friend, in a similar situation, with a happy effect. She often composed herself to sleep, after a laborious day of humiliation and suffering, by repeating the verses. With the recollection that such cases are never wanting, and with the hope that they may administer comfort to some of the sons or daughters of sorrow, our correspondent offers them for a place in our magazine.

We will only add, that it is not the least of the pleasures which an editor's profession sometimes affords him, that he is able thus to open a channel of communication between hearts which need consolation, and those which know so well how to confer it.—Ed.

THE AMERICAN PENNY MAGAZINE

AND FAMILY NEWSPAPER,

Is published weekly, at the office of the New York Express, No. 112 Broadway, at 3 cents a number, (16 pages large octavo,) or, to subscribers receiving it by mail, and paying in advance, \$1 a year. The postage is one cent a number for all parts of the State, or within 100 miles of the city, and one and a half cents for greater distances. Persons forwarding the money for five copies, will receive a sixth gratis. Editors known to have published this advertisement, with an editorial notice of the work, will be supplied with it for one year. By the quantity, \$2 a hundred. The work will form a volume of 832 pages annually.

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